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Attention: Mr. William Alford

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Subject: Preliminary Results of the Computer Simulation of Data

Compression Using ERTS-A MSS Digital Tapes

NTIS HC #4,25

Date: 3 January 1973

Contract: ERTS Image Data Compression Technique Evaluation

Principal Investigator: Dr. Donald J. Spencer, GSFC ID PR512

Prepared by: Dr. Curtis L. May

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Redondo Beach, California

1. INTRODUCTION

This report presents some preliminary results on the data compression simulation program prepared by TRW for the NASA contract "ERTS Image Data Compression Technique Evaluation." This report is intended to illustrate the typical computer output for each scene processed.

2. BACKGROUND

As specified in the TRW proposal, the computer program should be capable of generating various statistical characterizations of the MSS data and of the compression algorithms. These measures are:

- Data mean and variance in each spectral band and over all bands.
- e First difference probability density functions (pdf) for each spectral band using the SSDI, SSDIA, and SSDIAM transforms.
- e Joint spectral-spatial correlation along the scan lines.
- e First difference joint probability ellipsoids.

(E73-10011) PRELIMINARY RESULTS OF THE COMPUTER SIMULATION OF DATA COMPRESSION USING ERTS-A MSS DIGITAL TAPES (TRW Systems Group) 43 p HC \$4.25 CSCL 05B

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- o Overall pdf for SSDI, SSDIA, SSDIAM and Shell symbols.
- Huffman codes for SSDI, SSDIA, SSDIAM, and Shell symbols.
- Scene entropy and average code lengths for SSDI, SSDIA, SSDIAM, and Shell transforms.
- o Time-varying data compression for the scene.

These statistical measures will be computed for several 5 nmi \times 5 nmi object classes and 25 nmi \times 25 nmi scenes to be extracted from MSS tapes. In addition, compressed tapes will be generated and reconstructed tapes will be made for a few selected scenes.

3. RELEVANCE TO FUTURE WORK

The MSS tapes processed during the data analysis phase of the contract will produce similar computer output unless changes are made as a result of the Data Analysis Plan due 26 January 1973. As a result of the preliminary analysis several additional statistical measures such as line-to-line and column-to-column correlation as well as covariance matrices would be desirable, at least for selected scenes.

Using ERTS-A tape 1025-1S103, several subscenes have been processed with the TRW computer program. These scenes corresponded to segments of the image having varying degrees of data activity. The compressions achieved on these 5 nmi x 5 nmi subscenes produce average output bit rates varying from 1.8 bits per sample to 4.4 bits/per sample. The example case given in section 4 is an intermediate case requiring an output rate on the order of 3 bits per sample.

COMPUTER SIMULATION RESULTS

The mester computer programs have been used to simulate the various compression algorithms and to compute the desired statistics on several segments of ERTS-A multispectral data. These scenes have been taken from the ERTS digital bulk MSS tape number 1025-15103 which covers the Lake St. John area in Quebec, Canada and includes the cities of Alma and Chicoutioni and the Saguenay River. The area is shown in Figure 4.1.

The various printout generated by the CDC-6500 computer is included in this section. The results will first be given and then the interpretation of these results will be presented and compared to results obtained on other sections of the scene. The output shown is from a 5 nmi x 5 nmi high detailed section of the scene centered at 49.2° and 71.1°longitude.

Figure 4.2 shows the cross spectral-spatial correlation σ_k of the input data as a function of distance along a scan line. This data is plotted in Figure 4.3. The correlation is formed by obtaining the normalized dot products of the intensity vectors $\underline{I_i}$ and $\underline{I_{i+k}}$, corresponding to pairs of intensity vectors separated along the scan line by k-1 intervening pixels. Normalization removes the effects of scene illumination and the closer the dot product is to unity (100%), the higher the correlation between intensity vectors. If the data is very active spectrally, the pair of vectors can be widely separated. The curves correspond to the percentages of vectors a distance k apart having normed dot products greater than σ_k , as averaged over the entire scene.

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Figure 4.2 Cross Spectral-Spatial Correlation of the Data



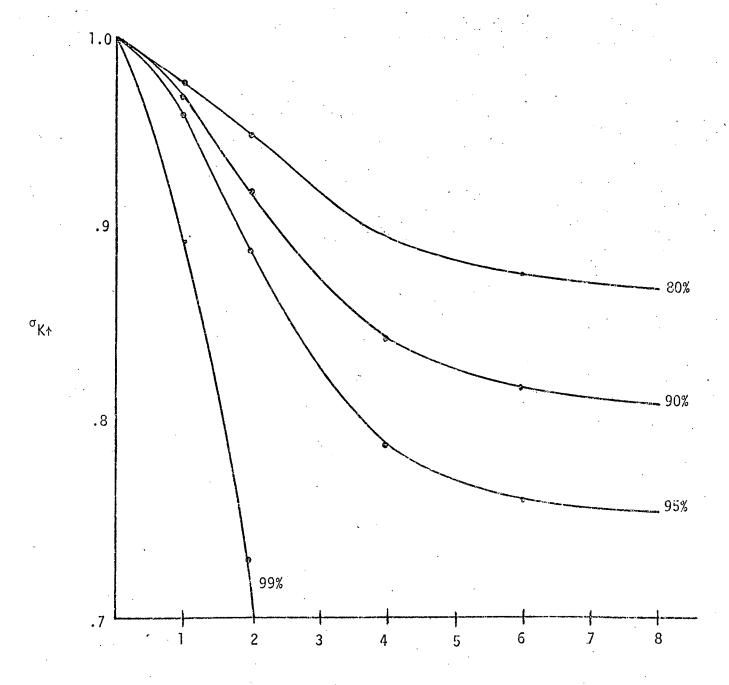


Figure 4.3 Plot of Correlation σ_{K}

The joint probability distribution function (pdf) of the first order differences (as obtained by the SSDI algorithm) over the scene is given in Figures 4.4 through 4.9. The set of output products spans all six possible pairs of bands. In each plot the joint occurrence of (0, 0) is normalized to 100 and this normalizing factor is used to multiply all other joint output occurrences. If a pair occurs less than one percent of the occurrence of (0, 0) it is not displayed in order to simplify the figures.

Figure 4.10 shows the mean and variance of each band as well as the overall mean and variance of the scene. Figure 4.11 gives the pdf of the first differences as obtained by the SSDI algorithm. Only difference levels in the range [-18, 18] are given since levels beyond these normally occur far less than one per cent of the time. Figures 4.12 and 4.13 give the first difference pdf as obtained by the SSDIA and SSDIAM algorithms. Note that the SSDIA first differences have a much smaller variance than those obtained by the SSDI and the one percent occurence cuts off at a lower level. The SSDIAM further decreases the variance but increases the probability of +1 and -1 due to the one bit mapping of this algorithm. Again, the SSDIAM produces a one percent cutoff at a lower difference level than the SSDIA. In general, compression increases as the variance decreases.

The pdf of the SSDI, SSDIA, and SSDIAM symbols are given in Figure 4.14. As in Figures 4.11 through 4.13, an improvement can be observed in the

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CODES FOR SSDIAM

distribution as we progress from SSDI to SSDIAM, implying increasing compression. Figure 4.15 shows the probability of shell locations for the given scene. Level 1 implies that all SSDI symbols are simultaneously zero for a pixel. Level 2 implies that the greatest symbol magnitude is 1 for a pixel. The probability distribution resembles a χ^2 distribution with peak at level 2 and a slow fall off of the tail.

Figures 4.16 through 4.19 give the Huffman codes for the scene using SHELL, SSDI, SSDIA, and SSDIAM transforms. Parameters listed are the symbol or shell level, its probability, the length of the symbol code word in bits, and the actual binary code word assigned to the symbol. To conserve space, only symbol levels between -20 and +20 are given but code words are assigned to all symbols. The least probable symbols can be grouped together under a lumped Huffman prefix code word as described in Appendix B. Such is the case for the SSDI, SSDIA, and the SSDIAM codes. All grouped code words displayed are given an asterisk following the symbol length and the lumped prefix code is given. Following the Huffman code, the total probability of the grouped symbols is given as well as the prefix code length in bits. The entropy of the symbol distribution is also displayed.

Figure 4.20 shows several time varying statistics of the coding techniques. The buffering statistics and the average bits per sample are given for each scan line of 180 pixels in each spectral band. Figure 4.20 only gives the first 119 scan lines of data using SSDIA symbols. If desired, the statistics can be presented for the SSDI or the SSDIAM symbols.

Figure 4.20 permits a comparison of the line by line average bit rate for the global Huffman, the adaptive Huffman, and the Rice encoding algorithms. For the data used, the average number of bits per sample varies from 2.214 bits to 3.905 bits for global Huffman coding, from 2.105 bits to 3.912 bits for adaptive Huffman coding, and from 2.249 bits to 4.321 bits for Rice encoding. In general, the average bits/sample varies rather slowly from line to line, following trends in the source data activity. Figure 4.21 presents the average data compression achieved over the scene by the adaptive coding techniques. The adaptive Huffman coding achieves a lower average bit rate than the Rice coding because of the necessary overhead which must be transmitted with Rice encoding. In addition, statistics are given concerning the occurrence of the various Rice modes. For the given data, the fundamental sequence (FS) was transmitted 31.7 percent of the time, the coded fundamental sequence (FSC) was transmitted 57.5 percent of the time, and the complemented fundamental sequence (FSCB) was used 10.8 percent of the time. For this data the split-pixel modes (6, 1), (4, 3) and (3, 4) did not occur.

SSDIA COMPRESSION STATISTICS CASE ID: NW 180X180

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A sample of the output table from program BLDTAB is given in Figure 4.24. This decoding table is of length 2^{12} and each entry gives the appropriate SSDI symbol and the number of shifts required to reposition the compressed bit stream for the next decoding operation. The beginning segment of the table gives symbols included under the lumped prefix. This lumped prefix has four bits. The following eight bits separates the lumped symbols. As shown the overall code word is of length twelve bits so that twelve shifts would be required in decoding. The other decodable words in this segment of the decoding table are -2 and +2, each of length four bits.

Figures 4.22 and 4.23 show the same segment of data from the input scene. Figure 4.22 gives the source digital data values in the first spectral band and Figure 4.23 gives the reconstructed digital data for the same band. Since the simulation is strictly information preserving, no errors have occurred in the data.

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Figure 4.22 A Segment of Input Data from Scene (Band 2)

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Figure 4.24 A Segment of Table ITAB

APPENDIX B: HUFFMAN SOURCE CODING

Several algorithms exist for efficiently coding sources whose statistics are known. These techniques have been investigated at TRW and the Huffman code was chosen as being the most desirable algorithm for ground processing. The Huffman code has all the properties required to ensure unique decoding with the minimum number of bits that can be obtained, coding each symbol at a time, and permits use of a "table look-up" decoding algorithm which can be performed rapidly.

A difficulty encountered in practical applications is the cumbersome algorithm required for the classical synthesis of a Huffman code given the statistics of the source symbols S. TRW has developed a more efficient technique for generation of Huffman codes. This algorithm also permits grouping of low probability symbols together for simplified decoding. Following a discussion of the classical Huffman code synthesis, the new algorithm will be described.

The Classical Synthesis of Huffman Codes [3]

Consider the source S with symbols S_1, S_2, \ldots, S_q and symbol probabilities P_1, P_2, \ldots, P_q and Σ P_i = 1. Let the symbols be ordered so that $P_1 \geq P_2 \geq \ldots \geq P_q$. By regarding the last two symbols of S as combined into one symbol, we obtain a new source from S containing only q-1 symbols. This new source is called a reduction of S. The symbols of this reduction of S may be re-ordered again in terms of decreasing probability and again the two least probable symbols of the reduced S are combined to form a second reduction. By continuing this reduction process, a sequence of sources is formed, each containing one less symbol than the previous reduction. The process is finished when a reduced source contains only two symbols.

A compact instantaneous binary code for the final reduction is the trivial code with words 0 and 1. Working backward from this final reduction, the Huffman code is synthesized as follows. Assume that a compact instantaneous code has been found for S_i , one of the sources in a sequence of reduced sources. One of the symbols of S_i , say S_{α} , is formed from two symbols of the preceding

source S_{i-1} . Call these symbols $S_{\alpha 0}$ and $S_{\alpha 1}$. Each of the other symbols of S_{i} corresponds to one of the remaining symbols of S_{i-1} . The compact instantaneous code for S_{i-1} is formed from the code derived for S_{i} as follows:

Assign to each symbol of S_{i-1} (except $S_{\alpha 0}$ and $S_{\alpha 1}$) the codeword used by the corresponding symbol of S_i . The codewords used by $S_{\alpha 0}$ and $S_{\alpha 1}$ are formed by adding a 0 and 1, respectively, to the codeword used for S_{α} . An example of the synthesis procedure for a given source is illustrated in Figure B1. Each symbol S_i of the source S is assigned a codeword of length ℓ_i . The average code length for this source is therefore

$$\overline{L} = \sum_{i=1}^{q} P_i \ell_i$$

where \overline{L} satisfies the inequality

$$0 \leq \overline{L} \leq H = -\sum_{i=1}^{q} P_i \log_2 P_i$$

where H is the entropy of the source S.

The difficulty imposed by the classical Huffman synthesis involves the forward flow of the code generation between successive reduced sources. This procedure is very inefficient of time and storage when used as the basis of a computer algorithm for coding a source.

An Improved Huffman Algorithm for Computers

The new algorithm separates the source reductions from the code synthesis. The first part of the algorithm keeps track of the number of times each symbol in the original source is grouped during the sequence of source reductions. This contains all information as to the length of the codeword assigned to that symbol in the resulting Huffman code. The second part of the algorithm uses these lengths, ℓ_i , to generate a Huffman code C for the source S.

Note that the resulting Huffman code may or may not be identical to the code generated by the classical synthesis procedure, but the average code length is identical. Using the classical technique, many different Huffman codes can also be generated, depending on the assignment of 0 and 1 in each reduced source.

An example of the determination of codeword lengths, ℓ_i , is given in Figure B2 for the same source used in Figure B1. The second part of the algorithm is illustrated in Figure B3. This part of the algorithm operates as follows:

- 1. The lengths of ℓ_i are ranked in the order of increasing length.
- 2. Symbol \mathbf{S}_k of minimum length, $\mathbf{\ell}_k$, is assigned $\mathbf{\ell}_k$ zeros.
- 3. Each successive symbol $\mathbf{S}_{\mathbf{m}}$ has a code formed as

$$C_{m} = (C_{m-1}+1) + (\ell_{m}-\ell_{m-1})$$
 zeros.

This algorithm is very fast and essentially separates the problem of code generation from that of source reduction. The only information which need be stored from the source reduction portion of the algorithm is the vector of code lengths.

Low Probability Symbol Grouping

Often the total number of symbols S_i in source S is quite large and many of these symbols have probabilities of a small fraction of one percent. To save time in the encoding/decoding process at the expense of a small increase in average code length, these low probability symbols can be lumped into a single symbol. As an example, after ordering symbols with decreasing probability of occurrence, the first J symbols are directly coded, where Σ $P_i \geq .99$. The remaining symbols, having a total probability P_{J+1} of one $\mathbb{I}^{\frac{1}{p}}$ ercent or less, or grouped into symbol S_{J+1} . If M symbols are lumped into S_{J+1} , R bits must be used to describe these M symbols, where $R = \left\{\log_2 M\right\}^*$. During transmission, codeword C_{J+1} is followed by R bits to describe which of the M symbols occurred. The average code length is lengthened by such a grouping by less than P_i R.

st $\left\{ \ \
ight\}$ means next larger integer.

The advantage of grouping symbols which seldom occur is that the maximum length of any code word can be held to some predetermined length N. This simplifies the decoding algorithm and keeps the length of the required look-up table to length $2^{\rm N}$. These advantages in decoding are obtained at the possible expense of a slightly increased average code length.

During the encoding of symbols S, whenever one of the symbols occurs which is in the grouping the compressor transmits the sequence of bits forming code word C_{J+1} followed by R bits to describe which grouped symbol occurred. When the decoder encounters code word C_{J+1} , it uses the next R bits to decode this grouped symbol.

COMPUTER PROGRAM

A computer program has been developed and tested which accepts an array of symbols and generates the Huffman code. The program allows the operator to group symbols if desired and generates the grouped Huffman code and the average bit rate if R bits are used to separate the lumped symbols.

The flowchart describing the program is given in Figure B4. The inputs required are the source symbols S, their associated probabilities P, and the maximum codeword length acceptable N. The program outputs the Huffman coded Table MUF, which contains the coded bit stream C associated with the source symbols S.

Two major subroutines are used in this program. Subroutine ORDER reorders the symbols and their probabilities in a decreasing order so that the most probable symbols are at the top of an array 0. Subroutine GROUP adds the two least probable symbols in the array 0 to form a source reduction. This subroutine also keeps count of the number of source reductions performed and keeps track of the original source symbols which have been combined to form each reduced symbol. Each symbol is given a bit position in an array V. If symbols S_1 , S_3 and S_5 have been combined in a source reduction, that reduced symbol is represented in V as the binary word (\cdot \cdot \cdot 1 0 1 0 1). This representation allows a compact designation of groupings at each stage in the reduction.

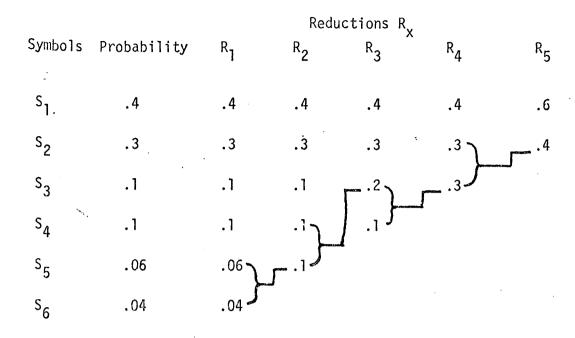
In operation, the program takes the array of input symbols and their probabilities, calls ORDER to rank them, and combines the M least probable symbols to form the grouped symbol S_{J-M+1} of probability $P_{J-M+1} = \sum\limits_{i=M}^{J} P_i$ (assuming $P_1 \geq P_2 \geq \cdots \geq P_{J-1} \geq P_J$). This new set of J-M+1 symbols forms the input to the basic algorithm in which successive calls to subroutines GROUP and ORDER generate successive source reductions until only two reduced symbols remain. At each stage of the reduction, array LENGTH is updated by one for each symbol in S which has been combined to form one of the reduced symbols which have been grouped in that step.

Following the reduction process, the array LENGTH is used to compute the binary codeword associated with all of the J-M+l non-grouped source symbols. LENGTH is re-ordered so that the most probable symbols which have the shortest code lengths are at the top of the array. A test takes place after LENGTH is re-ordered. If the longest codeword exceeds N bits, more source symbols are grouped and the source reductions performed again until the maximum codeword length is N or less. With 256 source symbols, such an occurrence is guaranteed at some stage of grouping.

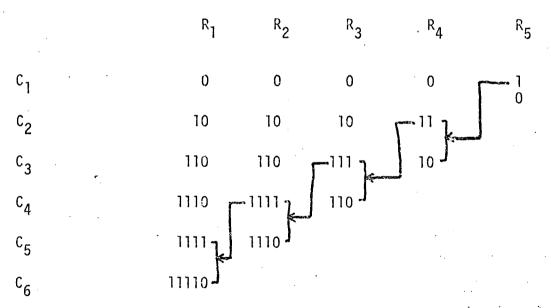
The generation of the codes then begins with the minimum length codeword and proceeds from word to word with the successive steps of adding 1 to the previous codeword and adding the required number of zeros to fill the word.

Table HUF is then generated where all entries corresponding to non-grouped symbols contain the computed Huffman codeword. For all grouped symbols, the entry in HUF contains the lumped prefix codeword C_{J-M+1} followed by 8 bits giving the symbol directly.

This program has been written by TRW and tested using SSDI encoding of subscenes from the MSS tape ERTS E-1025-15103.



(a) Source Reductions



(b) Code Synthesis

Figure Bl: Classical Huffman Code Synthesis

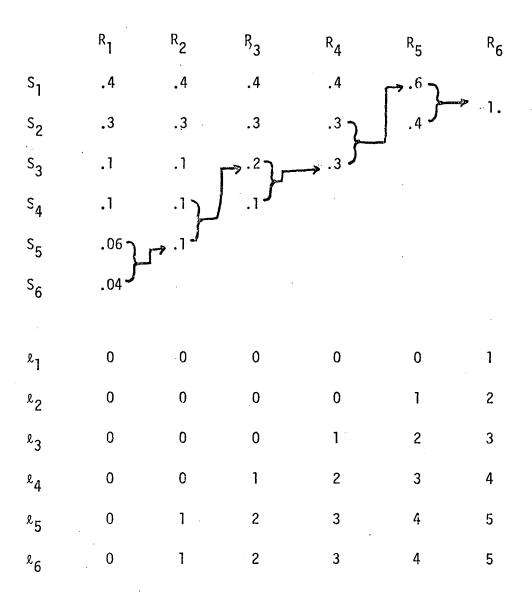


Figure B2: Determination of Code Word Lengths, $\hat{\epsilon}$

SYMBOL	LENGTH, _e	OPERATION	CODEWORD
s ₁	1	0	0
s ₂	2	0 + 1 and 1 shift	10
s ₃	3	10 + 1 and 1 shift	110
S ₄	4	110 + 1 and 1 shift	1110
S ₅	5	1110 + 1 and 1 shift	11110
s ₆ ,	5	11110 + 1 and no shift	11111

Figure B3: Huffman Code Synthesis Using Code Word Lengths ℓ_i

